

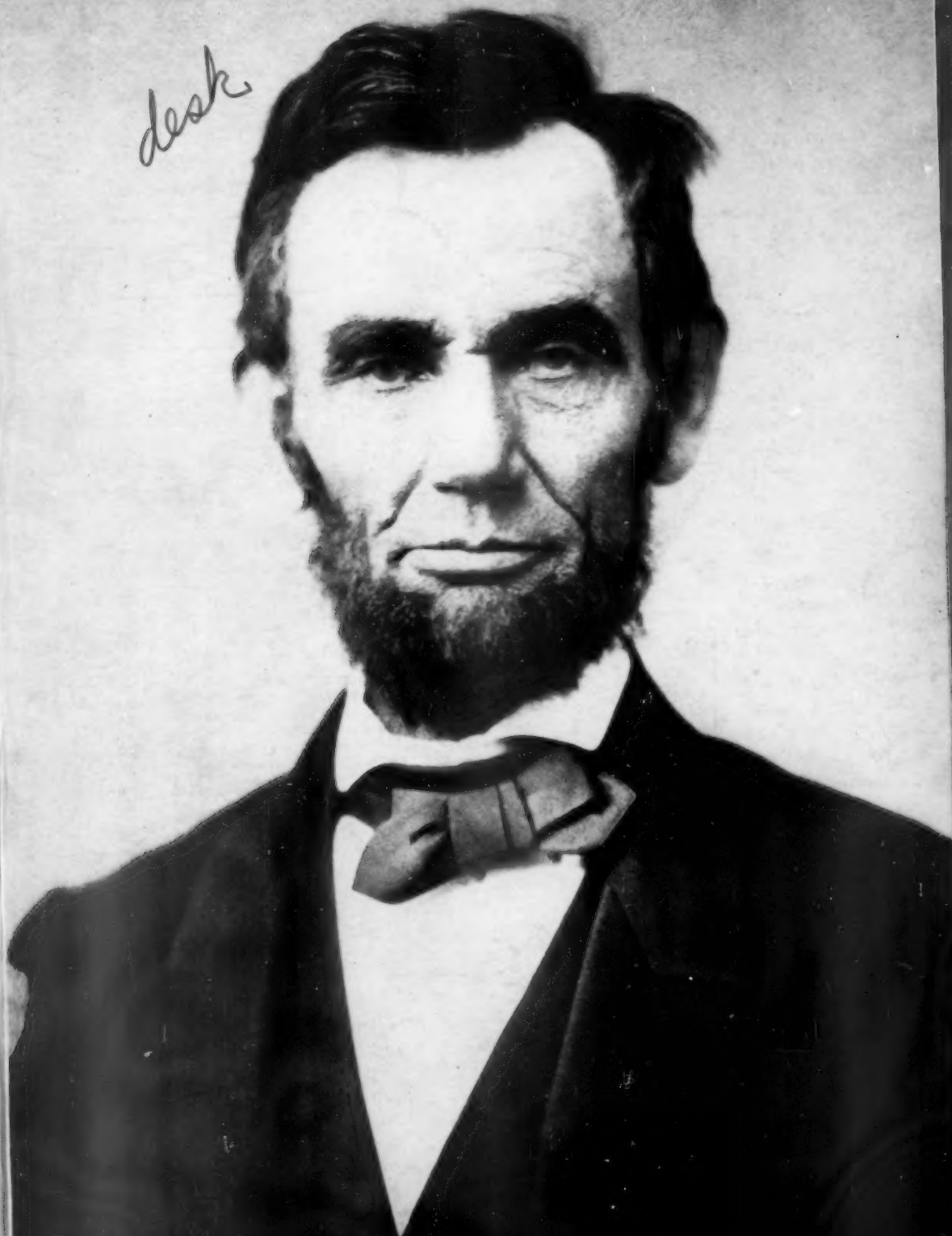
Volume 35-Number 5
FEBRUARY 1953

Route to

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School Life

desk



◀ Abraham Lincoln

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FEDERAL SECURITY AGENCY
Office of Education

Abraham Lincoln

SIX YEARS before the Congress authorized establishment of the Office of Education in 1867, Abraham Lincoln delivered his first inaugural address as President of the United States.

To a not too large assemblage at the east front of the unfinished Capitol, Lincoln, on March 4, 1861, said in part, "It is 72 years since the first inauguration of a President under our national Constitution. During that period 15 different and greatly distinguished citizens have, in succession, administered the executive branch of the government. They have conducted it through many perils, and generally with success. Yet, with all this scope of precedent, I now enter upon the same task for the brief constitutional term of four years, under great and peculiar difficulty."

On the 22d day of September 1862, President Lincoln declared "that on the first day of January, in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and sixty-three, all persons held as slaves within any State or designated part of a State, . . . shall be then, thenceforward, and forever, free." This declaration, signed by President Lincoln on January 1, 1863, is the well known Emancipation Proclamation.

Lincoln's message to the Congress on December 1, 1862, according to Carl Sandburg,* "pointed to 'that portion of the earth's surface owned and inhabited by the people of the United States' as adapted to be the home of 'one national family' and not for two or more. . . ." On this occasion he repeated what he had said in his inaugural address, "We cannot remove our respective sections from each other, nor build an impassable wall between them."

Criticized by most newspapers and hailed by only a few was President Lincoln's historic address at Gettysburg, Pa., on November 19, 1863. This 2-minute address, marking the dedication of a national cemetery on the site of the Battle of Gettysburg, has probably been memorized and recited by our Nation's children more than any other Presidential statement. Lincoln's concluding words in this immortal message were: ". . . we here highly resolve that these dead shall not have died in vain, that this nation under God shall have a new birth of freedom, and that government of the people, by the people, for the people shall not perish from the earth."

In his second inaugural address on March 4, 1865, 1 month and 11 days before he was to die from an assassin's bullet, President Lincoln uttered these simple words, now carved in our country's history, "With malice toward none; with charity for all; with firmness in the right, as God gives us to see the right, let us strive on to finish the work we are in; to bind up the nation's wounds; to care for him who shall have borne the battle and for his widow, and his orphan—to do all which may achieve and cherish a just and a lasting peace, among ourselves, and with all nations."

*Sandburg, Carl, "Abraham Lincoln—The War Years," volume I of four volumes, page 618. Published by Harcourt, Brace & Co.

**School
★ Life**

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• • • Federal Security Agency

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The cover photograph of Abraham Lincoln, appropriate to February, the month of his birth, was obtained from the files of the Library of Congress, Washington, D. C.

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THE OFFICE OF EDUCATION was established in 1867 "for the purpose of collecting such statistics and facts as shall show the condition and progress of education in the several States and Territories, and of diffusing such information respecting the organization and management of schools and school systems and methods of teaching, as shall aid the people of the United States in the establishment and maintenance of efficient school systems, and otherwise promote the cause of education throughout the country."

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Delinquency and the School

By Leo F. Cain, Dean, Education Services, and Director, Special Education
San Francisco State College

THE WORD DELINQUENCY is a familiar one. The escapades of delinquent youth make sensational newspaper copy. They are given generous space on the front page and in the headlines. To many this makes interesting reading but to the majority of parents it gives satisfaction and security that their children are apart from any such way of life. Likewise, many of our schools assume the attitude that their pupil populations do not include delinquent children and that any education of such children should be the function of special schools or institutions.

The meaning of delinquency is highly generalized and implies many things to many people. To some it means breaking the law, to others an antisocial human being. Such terms as lying, stealing, immorality, disobedience, and murder are frequently used in describing the delinquents of the community. Too few times are these youngsters considered as human beings who need constructive help and realistic and thoughtful guidance. The fact is too often disregarded that delinquent children have adapted themselves to a way of life which may be highly motivated in terms of satisfying their needs and drives. This way of life, although in conflict with the mores of society, may have given them many opportunities for leadership, companionship and achievement. Because they have broken the rules of society, they become individuals who must be reformed and who must undergo a period of correction. To carry out this program our society has set up institutions and has tagged them with such titles as reform schools, corrective institutions, juvenile homes or training schools. In most instances the functions of these institutions have been to

isolate the delinquent child from society in a sociological island. They have attempted to transform so-called bad boys and girls into good citizens and to return them to their respective communities with changed attitudes and capable of making adjustments to a society which has previously rejected them. The case histories of the products of these institutions are somewhat disillusioning and their subsequent rejection by the school and community has been all too frequent.

Even a casual study of the problem of delinquency reveals that its causes are multiple and complex. These causes are inherent in the behavior of the individual and are inseparable from the environment in which he lives. Thus it follows that the treatment of delinquent behavior is essentially a community problem and not one which can be totally solved by any one agency or institution either within or without the community itself.

A Place of Understanding and Security

The school, as the one social institution which has contact with all children and youth, is obligated to assume a leadership role both in programs directed at the prevention of delinquency as well as those designed for assisting those youth who have been declared delinquents by the courts or by the community. The brief comment which follows is directed toward the local school and the teacher training institutions.

Delinquent behavior is bred in an atmosphere of rejection and insecurity. Any child has the potential of becoming delinquent, for this minority group is composed of all races and creeds and is drawn from all socio-economic levels. One of the

most effective ways in which the local school can combat delinquent behavior is to make sure that it wholeheartedly accepts all children who enter its doors and particularly that it provides a secure environment for those children who may have been rejected by their parents, their friends, or their communities.

Special Services

This acceptance and understanding must be first and foremost a part of the philosophy of the classroom teacher and the school administrator. The teacher who genuinely accepts the child for what he is and who can objectively evaluate the effect on child behavior of such factors as a sordid home background, an overprotective parent or lack of emotional security can establish an environment which will provide the security essential to the development of positive attitudes. This teacher will be interested in carefully observing her children, not only in the schoolroom, but on the playground, at home and in the community. She will not be threatened by outbursts of aggression and will be concerned when a child fails to participate or is isolated or rejected by his classmates. She will be flexible in her curriculum planning and will make an honest attempt to include some experiences in which every child can participate successfully and will not base the evaluations of her charges totally on academic achievement.

The teacher and the school administrative officials will also encourage the inclusion of a number of special services. They will consider these services a part of and not apart from the basic school program. They will make every effort to understand fully

the functions of these services and to participate in them whenever the need arises. The work of attendance officers must mean more than just dealing with truants. Here is a resource that can represent a direct link between the home and school and through which many home-school problems can be resolved. The visiting teacher and social worker can provide valuable information about youngsters and if they are made an integral part of the educational team can help in making the school program meet children's needs. Many schools have special classes. These classes are functional only if their objectives are clearly understood by all school personnel and if they meet the needs for which they are designed. Too often these classes are islands within the school and their programs considered second-rate by both the teachers and the students. For example, classes for retarded students sometimes have been stigmatized and students who do poor work have been threatened with the possibility of being transferred to them. Acceptance of retarded children in regular classes has been resisted, and the special classes have been considered as the best placement for the "undesirables." Only when special classes are given equal status with the total school program are they of real service.

More and more, schools are providing more nearly adequate guidance and health services. These again are services which can help the teacher in the understanding of her pupils and in aiding her to provide a wholesome and developmental school program. It is not enough to refer a youngster to the health service, guidance clinic or counselor. These services cannot solve problems; they can only assist in their solution. The child as a member of any teacher's classroom group spends most of his school hours with the teacher; therefore, the teacher must make classroom adaptations in the light of the known health problems of any particular child and must work closely with the psychologist and guidance worker on the treatment of specific behavior difficulties.

Thus the teacher is placed in a position of key responsibility. Unless she assumes that responsibility, no amount of special service the school may provide will be as effective as it should be. It is the understanding teacher in cooperation with the school administrator who must provide the key service for the child who needs help.

This service should be provided before society has the opportunity to label a child a delinquent. It should be provided for the youngster who has already been labeled.

A Community Team

If the school is to assume its proper role in the prevention of delinquent behavior, it must also become an active part of a community team. As has been pointed out, the problem of delinquency cannot be solved by the school alone as it is essentially a community problem. Many agencies in the community are continuously working with the problem directly. These include welfare and family agencies, church groups, health departments, youth agencies, both public and private, the courts and law enforcement officials, and the press. In addition, many other groups and individuals are actively interested and in many ways have direct contact with delinquent behavior and are anxious to help. Among these are parents and parent-teacher groups, service clubs, labor groups, professional groups such as physicians and lawyers and clergymen and a large number of businessmen. Youth groups particularly should be enlisted because those with interesting and worth-while programs developed by youth themselves under sympathetic and competent direction can be of particular help in providing an atmosphere of acceptance and security which the delinquent child needs. One form in which delinquency often manifests itself is through gangs and other highly organized forms of group activity. If community youth groups can find ways to utilize in a constructive manner the talent of boys and girls who have shown leadership in antisocial situations, they may well be one of the most effective agents of rehabilitation.

A Note on Teacher Training

In some communities the school tends to isolate itself from the programs which other community groups and individuals sponsor and guide. Many communities have set up councils to assist in the coordination of youth programs. In some instances these councils include the school, in some they do not. If the school is omitted, part of the program is lost and the services it has to offer tend to become isolated. School officials should see that they are included and that the appropriate per-

sonnel within the school system assume an active role. Reports of many community-wide projects for youth are available, and information can be obtained about many of them from the Federal Security Agency through the Children's Bureau and the U. S. Office of Education.

If the local school is to be staffed by teachers and administrators prepared to deal with problems of delinquency it becomes the obligation of the teacher education institutions to give some emphasis to the problem in their curricula. Basic to this problem and to all teacher education is the selection of teacher candidates. Careful selection of prospective teachers proves difficult today when the Nation faces a large teacher shortage. Nevertheless, the fact that teachers with poor personal adjustment find it difficult to work with children and at times actually encourage delinquent behavior cannot be ignored. If colleges think it necessary to recommend doubtful candidates, particularly those with severe adjustment problems, they should make every effort to help these students resolve their difficulties before recommending them for teaching positions.

Study of the problem of delinquent behavior should be more than a text-book orientation. It should be an integral part of functional courses in child development, mental hygiene, group methods and sociology. Extensive opportunity should be given to observe and work with children both in and out of the school setting. This should include some contact with delinquent children. Social agencies and the courts can provide ample resources. One college requires that all students spend at least 15 hours during their first semester of teacher training in working with children in a community agency. This field work is correlated with courses in education and psychology and helps to develop understanding of the problems children face outside of the school itself. Many teacher-training institutions are also increasing their emphasis on the study of children. If future teachers enter the classroom with an awareness of the wide range of behavior patterns they are going to meet and some understanding of how to attack specific problems, the school will more and more be able to cope realistically with the problems of latent and overt delinquency.

Some colleges and universities have in-

(Continued on page 75)

Planning the Elementary Classroom



Casis Elementary School, Austin, Tex.

By J. L. Taylor, Specialist, School Plant Management, School Housing Section,
Division of State and Local School Systems

SCHOOL PLANNING is becoming an important part in community development. It is encouraging that lay citizens have accepted the invitation to participate in planning the school program and the physical facilities. The Office of Education and the State departments of education are receiving many inquiries on planning school facilities. Much of the noticeable increased interest in school facilities is due to the Nation-wide School Facilities Survey which is administered by the Office of Education. Other factors contributing to the stepped-up planning movement are (1) increased birth rates, (2) the backlog of school building needs, (3) reorganization of local districts, (4) the shifting of population, and (5) the changing curriculum.

The School Housing Section of the Office of Education plans to produce and publish a series of brochures and bulletins on planning various elements of school plants. The first of the series, *Let's Give the Kids a Break, An Approach to the Design of Elementary Classrooms to Fit the Child and the Program*, will be published in 1953. The elementary classroom was chosen for the

first brochure because inquiries indicate assistance is most urgent in that element at this time. The Elementary Schools Section of this Office and teachers, superintendents, and supervisors in the field are collaborating with school plant specialists of the School Housing Section in the study. A similar policy will be followed in the production of other Office bulletins on school plant planning.

Planning the elementary classroom is among the most important committee functions in the preparation of educational specifications. The personnel of the committee should represent a cross section of the people of the community. Teachers who will use the facilities certainly should play an important part in the planning. It is important that the committee work closely with the superintendent and the educational consultant, who, of course, will be guided by policies adopted by school authorities, usually the school board.

The classroom must be planned studiously and carefully. The planning committee for the elementary classroom, must therefore follow sound methods of pro-

cedure. Some methods which have been used successfully by planning groups are (1) visiting good school plants of comparable size and characteristics in similar situations, (2) searching literature in the school plant field, (3) compiling and reporting findings, (4) evaluating the findings in light of their relationship to the local situation, and (5) preparing educational specifications or space requirements.

The planning committee will need to secure information on the general characteristics of the local plant, the school's philosophy, the characteristics (physical, social, and mental) of the children and the program of activities which will be carried on in the room. Such data and information will be invaluable as the committee makes important decisions on requirements for the room.

Just what should be included in final educational specifications for the elementary classroom? The educational specifications might well be called educational requirements which, if wisely prepared, will give the architect data and information which will help him to design the room to

fit the child and the program. The content of the specifications, to be more specific, should include: A brief description of the school and the plant, room area and shape, sound control, audio-visual aids, storage, electrical outlets, heating and ventilation, lighting, colors, toilet facilities, washing and drinking provision, furniture, and equipment. The committee will not need to be technical in such items as lighting, heating and sound control; they may express needs in terms of general statements.

Elementary classroom characteristics should be determined by the activities to be

used in the school program and the number and age level of the children. The trend in recent years has been toward a more practical lifelike curriculum which involves a greater variety of activities than did the traditional school program. In view of the fact that the school program is continuously changing, it is not feasible to be specific in setting up standards. However, there are a few fundamental features which planners and designers must keep in mind.

The good elementary classroom is planned and designed so that it protects the life, limb, and health of its occupants.

The room is planned to fit the children and the program of activities. Since the program is changing continuously, the facilities and space must be capable of change without undue time and expense. The good elementary school classroom should be attractive and comfortable. Children and young people, the greatest asset in the country, are influenced in their attitude toward school and life itself by their environment. They spend about one-half of their waking hours during the school year in the school plant and most of that time in the classroom.

Inter-American Seminar on Vocational Education



Between sessions the group attending the Inter-American Seminar on Vocational Education is photographed at the University of Maryland. U. S. Government representatives and educational leaders are included.

THOSE WHO ATTENDED the Inter-American Seminar on Vocational Education at the University of Maryland last fall urged the organization of vocational education associations in each of the countries represented at the conference. They expressed the hope that in the near future the representatives of newly organized associations, possibly affiliated in an international federation of vocational education associations, could come together again in conference to consider problems of mutual interest.

The 1952 seminar was sponsored by the Pan American Union, The International Labour Organization, The Department of State, U. S. Office of Education, Institute of Inter-American Affairs, and the University of Maryland. Official delegates for the

United States to the seminar were: R. W. Gregory, Office of Education, Chief of Delegation, B. Frank Kyker, and A. T. Hamilton, Office of Education; Druzilla Kent, Professor of Home Economics Education, University of Tennessee, and Nicolas Mendez, Supervisor of Agricultural Education, Puerto Rico.

Three Other Conferences

U. S. Commissioner of Education Earl James McGrath, in welcoming the representatives of the American Republics to the seminar on behalf of the United States Government, reviewed the results of three previous conferences of this type. He said further, "Vocational education has, of course, intrinsic values which you will discuss fully in the days ahead. I would like to point

out now, however, that it has a collateral value to our entire educational program, because a well-rounded program of education for the responsibilities of citizenship is expensive and dependent upon a comparatively large national income. The latter is dependent upon the productive capacity of each worker. We know that productive capacity is also dependent in large part upon the skills and the knowledge of the worker. Vocational education improves the worker's skills and the knowledge of the worker. Therefore, in a very real sense, a comprehensive program of vocational education is essential if a broad basic education for citizenship is to be provided for all, for only as the income of the nation is increased can the opportunities for education be continuously expanded."

High School Retention: How Does Your State Rate?

By Walter H. Gaumnitz, Specialist, Secondary Education,
Division of State and Local School Systems

THERE is a well-known adage which says that "Figures don't lie." In recent years the cynic has added, "Yes, but liars do figure." To a degree this can be said about all statistical presentations of educational facts. Nevertheless it is very important that educators from time to time bend themselves to the task of both compiling the available statistics relating to pending issues, and that they consider these data soberly in the light of their theoretical ideals, their educational objectives, and their policies and practices of school administration and operation.

The United States Bureau of the Census is now engaged in completing the stupendous task of the decennial count. More and more in recent years this count has contained significant data reflecting the practices and achievements of the people of the United States as concerns the education of their children and youth. Increasingly the Bureau has reported how many children of various ages are in school attendance, and how much education the American people are achieving before they reach adulthood. These data are more and more becoming available not only for the United States and the individual States as wholes, but for municipalities, counties, and other civic units; also on urban, suburban, rural nonfarm, and rural-farm bases.

The Bureau of the Census cooperates closely with the United States Office of Education which regularly gathers data to show enrollments in the various grades ranging from the kindergarten through high school. The Office publishes its reports biennially and by States in a document known as "Statistics of State School Systems."

It is now possible to see at an early date how many children are attending school through various levels of education. Unfortunately the data gathered by the Office of Education do not yet show the ages of the children enrolled in each grade at a given

time or their ages when they are graduated or drop out of school.

The Drop-Out Problem

In recent years there has been growing interest in the extent to which the high schools are achieving their vaunted objective of keeping all youth in school until they are 18 years of age. Generally speaking the statistical findings available for the Nation as a whole show clearly that we are still far from the goal of providing educational services to every youth of high school age. To be sure progress toward this goal has been substantial during the first half of the century, but a good many boys and girls still do not even enter the high schools and the number of drop-outs continues to be very high, especially from the ninth and tenth grades, during which time compulsory education laws gradually relax their hold. Indeed many an educator expresses surprise to find statistical proof that today only about 80 percent of American children entering school reach the ninth grade and that only about a half are present on graduation day.

Consideration of these national statistics has in recent years stimulated the individual State and local school authorities to look into the drop-out problem. They have been startled to find a much higher drop-out than they expected or thought possible. Such revelations have led to thoroughgoing studies concerned not only with how many drop out at various age and grade levels, but why they drop out, what becomes of them after they drop out, and what are the judgments of youth concerning the adequacies and inadequacies of the educational service provided for them by the high schools they have attended. A great many school systems, however, continue largely to ignore this problem. Too often they seem to assume that all is well within their borders as concerns both the quality

and the availability of education services provided by their high schools. If youth leaves school early, or otherwise reacts unfavorably, the fault is not that of the schools; youth itself is blamed.

No State Breakdown

One of the greatest shortcomings of the statistical facts thus far regularly provided has been that they were available on a national level but could not be readily broken down for the States. Efforts to break down such data required supplementary facts from each State and then the results were not always satisfactory.¹ As a result State-by-State comparisons could not be made.

It was with these facts in mind that a quick survey was made of the data provided by the Bureau of the Census for the year 1950, and those provided by the Office of Education for the same year. The Bureau of the Census is just now completing its State-by-State reports, whereby it becomes possible to determine the population 14-17 years of age, inclusive, and the number and percentage of these "in school." These data do not, however, show the grade levels in which pupils are enrolled or types of school attended.

From the reports of the Office of Education it was possible to find the total number of youth enrolled in public and private secondary schools, but these did not report the data by age groupings. The fact that both types of data for 1950 are now available makes it possible to compute a percentage ratio for each State, using the youth population 14 through 17 given in the former source, and the high school enrollments given in the latter. While each set of data possesses certain shortcomings, each series provides helpful and comparable indices of high school retention for each State. Taken

¹ 547 Have Gone, Washington, Research Division of the National Education Association, 1948 (Federal Aid Series No. 3). 21 p. mimeo.

together the two sets of data not only strengthen each other but reveal significant facts neither set could provide singly.

By examining the increases since 1890 in the percentage ratios of the high school enrollments to population 14 to 17, inclusive, a rough index can be had of the extent to which high school youth of the United States as a whole have been retained in school. This ratio stood at only 7 out of 100 in 1890, 11 in 1900, 15 in 1910, 32 in 1920, 51 in 1930, 73 in 1940, and for 1950 it reached 79, its highest level thus far. In other words nearly 4 out of 5 of these youth are now in such schools. These data show that in the second and third decades of this century these ratios rose very rapidly. This was due both to the growing availability of the public high schools throughout the land and to the heroic efforts made by these schools to make their services more useful to all types of boys and girls. The more recent slowing up of the rate of rise in this ratio is due to the closer approach to the point of diminishing returns rather than any relaxation of the high schools in their efforts to reach all youth or to improve and diversify their programs.

The report here presented is concerned, however, chiefly with two sets of indices showing the holding power of the high schools of each State compared with each other. To be sure, the low ratios of some States do not necessarily mean that they have neglected secondary education. It is well known that the problem of providing satisfactory high school services is much greater in one State than in another—differences in climate, terrain, sparsity of population, ethnic groups all enter this situation.

To consider these indices intelligently they must be more fully understood than the data here presented will reveal. The "in school" data of the Census Report are based upon the question "has he attended school at any time since February 1, 1950?" Attendance at school included the "regular" public, private or parochial schools of all levels whereby educational credit was earned, operating either on a full-time or part-time basis, and as day or evening schools. Persons learning through correspondence courses, trade schools, commercial schools, etc., not generally recognized as elementary or secondary instruction were not included.

"In School" Data

The "in school" data gathered by the census, therefore, are excellent indices of continued education as long as no effort is made to differentiate them for the elementary and secondary school levels. They show youth enrolled in the regular schools by age groups; they do not show in what grade level they are. Obviously many retarded youth 14 to 17 were still in the elementary grades, chiefly in the sixth, seventh, and eighth; a few of the accelerated 17-year-olds were already in college. Sample studies made by the Census Bureau suggest about 18 per 100 of the 14-17-year-olds in school are not in high school; of these about 15 are in grades below the high school and about 3 are in college.

The high school enrollments reported to the Office of Education are for June 1950. They include all youth enrolled in grades 9 to 12, and a few in high school "post-graduate courses." They are excellent indices of the extent to which youth are enrolled in the high schools, but they do not give these data by age groups. Obviously some accelerated 12- and 13-year-olds are already attending the ninth grade or higher, and many 18-year and older youth are still in the high school grades. Again a sample study reveals that about 14 per 100 of those attending high school are not 14 to 17 years old; 6 are below 14 years of age and 8 are 18 or older. These data may also include a few youth who enrolled in both a public and a parochial high school

High School Youth Retention Indices, by States, 1950¹

States	Population, ages 14-17, inclusive	Pupils "in school," ages 14-17, U. S. Census report			Enrollment, grades 9-12, public and private high schools		
		Number	Ratio	Rank	Number	Ratio	Rank
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
United States.....	8,019,870	7,067,790	88.1		6,369,096	79.4	
Alabama.....	221,990	173,105	78.0	40.5	129,255	58.2	43
Arizona.....	47,885	38,040	79.4	36	29,605	61.8	39
Arkansas.....	135,550	104,995	77.5	44	60,297	59.2	41
California.....	483,185	437,070	90.5	3	400,938	89.2	4
Colorado.....	74,100	62,390	84.2	25	57,732	77.9	24.5
Connecticut.....	94,470	83,245	88.1	10	77,881	82.4	16
Delaware.....	16,960	13,865	81.8	30	12,494	73.7	29
Florida.....	144,685	119,690	82.7	29	102,174	70.6	32
Georgia.....	235,640	173,075	73.4	46	150,677	63.9	35
Idaho.....	38,075	33,705	88.5	8	31,616	83.0	13
Illinois.....	427,570	372,305	87.1	15	335,754	78.5	23
Indiana.....	214,150	184,770	86.3	19	177,421	82.8	14
Iowa.....	151,040	132,115	87.5	13	124,864	82.7	15
Kansas.....	108,110	92,250	86.3	20	82,280	76.1	27
Kentucky.....	203,465	142,255	69.9	48	108,201	53.2	45
Louisiana.....	171,790	135,910	79.1	37	96,473	56.2	44
Maine.....	56,135	46,510	82.9	27	45,249	80.6	19
Maryland.....	122,285	97,655	79.9	35	77,351	63.3	37
Massachusetts.....	234,425	203,080	86.6	17	241,062	102.8	1
Michigan.....	349,965	309,865	88.5	9	304,271	86.9	7
Minnesota.....	168,890	147,350	87.2	14	137,246	81.3	18
Mississippi.....	159,520	124,245	77.9	42	83,351	52.3	47
Missouri.....	216,220	173,220	80.1	35	165,960	76.8	26
Montana.....	33,365	29,245	87.7	11	28,692	86.0	8
Nebraska.....	77,835	66,855	85.9	22	66,686	85.7	9
Nevada.....	7,655	6,825	89.2	6	5,772	75.4	28
New Hampshire.....	29,785	25,505	85.6	23	25,040	84.1	11
New Jersey.....	228,095	196,765	86.3	21	207,774	91.1	3
New Mexico.....	46,555	37,615	80.8	33	29,634	63.6	36
New York.....	700,455	613,355	87.6	12	624,225	89.1	5
North Carolina.....	293,700	229,505	78.1	39	183,256	62.4	38
North Dakota.....	42,090	34,335	81.6	31	29,197	69.4	33
Ohio.....	403,575	357,530	88.6	7	321,926	79.8	21
Oklahoma.....	146,795	127,125	86.6	18	103,963	70.8	31
Oregon.....	79,375	72,575	91.4	2	70,283	88.5	6
Pennsylvania.....	575,620	500,050	86.9	16	472,819	82.1	17
Rhode Island.....	39,270	31,975	81.4	32	36,499	92.9	2
South Carolina.....	158,985	114,475	72.0	47	80,450	50.6	48
South Dakota.....	41,885	34,740	82.9	28	30,783	73.5	30
Tennessee.....	216,590	168,315	77.4	45	126,962	58.3	42
Texas.....	468,365	365,150	78.0	40.5	288,232	61.5	40
Utah.....	46,195	42,860	92.8	1	39,355	85.2	10
Vermont.....	23,110	19,400	83.9	26	18,013	77.9	24.5
Virginia.....	201,550	156,430	77.6	43	107,185	53.2	46
Washington.....	118,375	106,155	89.7	5	98,769	83.4	12
West Virginia.....	140,520	110,610	78.7	38	92,897	66.1	34
Wisconsin.....	197,435	177,315	89.8	4	158,942	80.5	20
Wyoming.....	17,300	14,780	85.4	24	13,813	79.8	22
District of Columbia.....	31,335	26,590	84.9		25,788	82.3	

¹ Data for columns 2 and 3 are taken from table 19, "Population; General Characteristics," (P-B42) State Reports of U. S. Bureau of the Census, 1950, and those for column 6 from tables 11 and 48, Statistics of State School Systems, 1949-50.

during the same school year and were reported twice. There is also some possible source of error in the ratio of high school enrollments to the population figures resulting from the fact that the data were taken from two sources, gathered and processed differently.

Keeping these facts in mind it is interesting to note that with few exceptions the "in school" ratios from the census report are larger than those showing high school enrollment. The exceptions seem to be States in which private and parochial enrollments are known to be disproportionately high. This may mean that such youth were either counted twice, or lived in one State but enrolled in schools of another.

Wide Differences

Generally speaking, the States showing the highest ratios in one set of indices also show the highest ratios in the other.

All of this suggests pointedly (1) that either series of measures provides fairly reliable comparative indices of the extent to which the several States succeed in keeping youth of high school age in school, (2) taken together they reinforce their indicative power, and (3) in the writer's opinion, the ratios of high school enrollment to population show the interstate comparisons of high school holding power somewhat more reliably than the "in

school" data reported in the Census Report. Of course, without the population data (column 2) by age groups from that Report, none of these comparisons would be possible.

This study shows clearly that there are wide differences in the extent to which youth of high school age in the several States is reached by and retained in the high schools of all types. It also suggests that one must go to various sources if he wishes to know what the high school retention and drop-out situation is in each State. Regular reports by all States of school enrollments, both by age and by grade levels, would help greatly to clarify this picture.

News From UNESCO

DURING a recent visit to Sweden, Mr. F. G. Leasure, formerly of Paul Smith's College, New York, and now specialist in vocational and technical education at UNESCO, was most impressed by the work being done at the Swedish Government Institute for Master Craftsmen, at Stockholm.

"No comparable institution," says Mr. Leasure, "designed exclusively to serve the interests of master craftsmen in small and home industries, exists anywhere else in the world." As Swedish home industries produce goods to the annual value of approximately \$1,000,000,000, the Hantverksinstitut, enabling craftsmen to keep abreast of the latest techniques, is of vital importance to the economy of the nation.

As a practical step towards the development and encouragement of educational exchanges UNESCO has been publishing at regular intervals since 1948 its *Study Abroad*, a classified list of scholarships and travel bursaries offered by official and private agencies throughout the world. Volume IV of this publication, which has just appeared and which deals with international training and student exchange programmes for 1951-52, 1952-53, and 1953-54, contains information on 38,000 bursaries, fellowships and other types of study grants offered by international organizations and by governments, educational bodies and private institutions in 60 countries.¹

There are awards for every field of study. Based on last year's volume, it is estimated that 60% or approximately 23,000 of the

total number are "unrestricted," which means that all subjects are approved by the awarding agency provided the candidates have the required qualifications. The remaining 40%, or 15,000 awards, fall under the following heads, in descending order of totals in each group: technology, social sciences, medical sciences, education, engineering, physical and biological sciences, fine arts and architecture, agriculture, languages and literature, philosophy and religion and others. They include cancer research, classical and mediaeval studies, Oriental or African studies, metallurgy, pure and applied sciences, statistics, economics, theology, fishery research, Spanish and Arabic literature, textile and plastics, co-operatives, journalism, sanitary engineering, production engineering, commerce, Brazilian culture and many other subjects.

A regional Seminar for history teachers of the four Northern countries—Sweden, Norway, Denmark and Finland—was recently held in Sigtuna near Stockholm. The purpose of this Seminar was to discuss problems concerning the teaching of history in the four Northern countries in the light of experience gained at the two UNESCO Seminars held at Brussels and Sèvres. The meeting was organized by the Swedish National Commission for UNESCO in collaboration with the Norden Associa-

tion and the Federation of Swedish history teachers.

A striking feature apparent in all the discussions of this seminar was the interest shown in the international aspects of history and the outspoken desire on the part of all the participants to give the teaching of world history and the study of foreign civilizations greater scope and depth in Scandinavian schools. Several of the participants had previously been working as teachers in other countries and continents in connection with missions and international organizations. The keen desire to widen their horizon beyond the radius of the advanced living conditions prevailing in the Northern countries so as to give practical help to people in other countries less fortunate than their own was apparently the underlying motive of this lively and sincere interest for greater international understanding shown by all throughout the Seminar.

Increasing attention is being given to the next seminar in the Unesco series on Education for International Understanding, namely the Seminar on the Teaching of Modern Languages which will take place in August 1953.

Recently Dr. Felix Walter, who has charge at UNESCO of the preparations for this Seminar, attended the meetings in Brussels of the Belgian Association of Teachers of Modern Languages. The theme chosen for discussion was the cul-

(Continued on page 78)

¹ *Study Abroad*, Vol. IV is available from the national distribution center for Unesco publications in the U. S., Columbia University Press, 2960 Broadway, New York.

Studying Elementary Schools

By the Staff of Elementary Schools Section, Division of Elementary and Secondary Education, U. S. Office of Education

This article is one of several being published this year to present the details of programs referred to in the article "Improving Education for Children," School Life, January 1952. Vol. 34 No. 4. It shows how the Elementary Schools Section Staff works cooperatively on planned projects.

How We Began

It was the fall of 1949. The study entitled *Organization and Supervision of Elementary Education in 100 Cities* had been completed. This was the time when the elementary section staff had planned to begin a companion study in the field of instruction. Since we had used an interview guide drawn up in advance in making the organization and supervision study, the group of 10 staff members who were to work on this new project thought a similar guide might be helpful. We began such a guide. The group took a look at it and remarked, both individually and collectively, "Too brief." Subcommittees went to work and produced a detailed list of items for study in all instruction areas as well as for the total program. This time the group of the whole reacted even more negatively, "Too detailed." Although we tried to steer a middle course from that point forward, we never did succeed in coming out with a guide for working that could be labeled "Just right."

Our Self-Education Program

However, as a result of these experiences, the group decided that we needed some self-education in order to answer such questions as, "How can you decide whether a total elementary school program is good for children? How do you recognize good

teaching and learning? How does the teacher draw upon the subject matter of science, health, physical education, social studies, art, music, the language arts, arithmetic in relation to the learning experiences of children? What are children learning?"

As a result, each specialist spent 2 hours presenting his philosophy of teaching and learning, starting with the total elementary school program to show how subject matter contributes to all the experiences of the school day. For example, the specialists in science pointed out that (1) science is broader than plant and animal study, (2) science experiences should help children with problem solving in everyday living in their immediate environment, and (3) generalizations and principles are developed from many experiences that children have throughout their elementary school years.

The science specialists proposed that staff members use as a yardstick for themselves such a question as, "Can you find evidence that as children go from grade to grade, their incidental interests are considered, but that the children show evidence of sustained interest too?"

How We Pulled Our Thinking Together

After about 9 months punctuated by such meetings at monthly intervals, in which each specialist presented his point of view for discussion, one staff member drew up out of all the suggestions and comments, and agreements, a set of *Principles of Modern Curriculum Development*. These were organized in a check list form with opportunity for each staff member to answer "Yes" or "No" to each item. The maker threw in a number "jokers" to make the checking experience more interesting. The main headings used were: Curriculum Goals, Selection and Planning of Curriculum Experiences, Organization of Cur-

riculum Experiences, Evaluation, Whole-School and Out-of-School Activities Which the School Can Enrich, Relation of School to Other Community Agencies, and Materials, Equipment, and Resources.¹ After we had checked the entire list, we took a look at both the areas of agreement and disagreement, in order to see where we stood as a group in our thinking.

How We Selected Schools

While these self-education experiences were going on, letters went to staff members of each State department of education requesting the names of a number of school systems where our staff members could see good practices in elementary education. We did not ask for best practices, but for those that were judged as generally good so far as the State was concerned. In addition we asked for brief descriptive statements about each such school program that would help us in making decisions about where to visit. Replies were tabulated and filed in a large alphabetical file, for ready reference. Although we tried to select towns and cities in various sections of the country and of various sizes, our visits were limited to those places that were on our travel routes in connection with other visits. This fact was due to the limited travel funds available. In all, 83 visits were made in the 48 States.

Finding Ways of Organizing Results

As the visits began, each visitor made a detailed report of what he saw and did. After 25 visits had been made and the results discussed, we drew up a list of Guiding Suggestions, to help us in looking for significant things. After another 25 visits this list gave way to what amounted to an outline of the bulletin that resulted from this study.

¹ *Schools At Work In 48 States*. U. S. Office of Education Bulletin, 1952, No. 13. Federal Security Agency. 35 cents. Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D. C.

School Practices in the 48 States

Section Division of State and Local School Systems



Real money in exchange for real goods gives meaning to arithmetic. Here grade school children collect milk money and are responsible for accurate accounting. Photograph courtesy Grand Rapids, Mich., schools.

Plan for School Visits

After the selection of schools and the staff preparation, came the school visits. Each was a 2-day visit with groups of teachers, with supervisors and administrators; and in classrooms. Often parents were interviewed and sometimes student councils or other groups of pupils or individual pupils furnished information. Insofar as possible the interviewers tried to get an over-all look at the school systems, see the things that the persons in charge considered especially significant, and see as many classes in action as possible. Almost always the interviewers left with a large manila envelope packed with bulletins, leaflets, newspaper clippings, children's work, and other material that would further describe the work of the school. In some cases further information and detail were furnished by letter upon specific request.

The reports of visits were written up in considerable detail by the reviewers and were accompanied by a bibliography of the material from the schools visited. Then came the job of digesting, assimilating the material, and organizing these findings into a report which would be meaningful to readers who would like to know what schools are doing and how they are doing it. First the reports from the various schools were read carefully and significant procedures were checked for possible inclusion in the written report. From these came the final organization of the report.

It became evident from the reading of the material that all of the schools visited were concerned, to varying degrees, with the problem of in-service education of teachers, with including more and more teachers in curriculum planning, with orientation of new teachers to their duties, and with using

local and nearby institutions of higher learning. Descriptions of practices with respect to these areas form the section in the report called *Teachers at Work*.

Accounts of various methods of grouping pupils, helping pupils to work independently, work of student councils and school clubs were grouped together under *Pupils at Work*.

The classroom observations were grouped in a section called *The School Program*. It describes some of the ways in which schools are meeting their problems of teaching reading, writing, spelling, arithmetic as well as ways in which they are including science, the social studies and health and safety education, and the creative arts. Specific illustrations of practices are described. Sometimes these are of individual lessons which illustrate a way of working. Sometimes they tell how pupils plan for, and carry on, an extensive study involving several subject matter areas and a variety of skills and activities. The descriptions show how schools attempt to make learning more vital and meaningful, how school work relates to community study, and how the school program is adapted to needs, abilities, interests, and aptitudes of the children.

The fourth section deals with *The School and Community at Work Together*. In it there are descriptions of parent and teacher groups working together on the problems of the school to improve education for children. The goals, methods of work, and services of these groups are indicated.

Another part of this section records practices in school and community relationships: How the schools make use of community resources and how the community uses the school program and facilities. A large part of this section describes how schools communicate with parents and other citizens to inform them of the work of the school through conferences, publications,

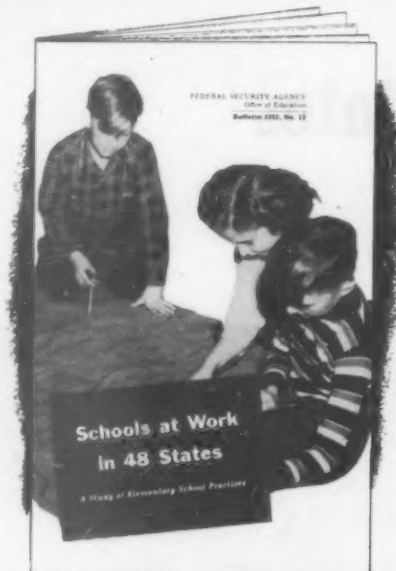
letters, and other means. The extent of this section appears to indicate that many schools are finding it increasingly desirable to provide their patrons with accurate, first-hand information and at the same time receive help from parents that is important in improving the school program.

Some Conclusions From the Study

A concluding page entitled *A Profession at Work on Its Problems* summarizes the bulletin's intention in the following paragraphs:

"Observation in the school systems described in this bulletin shows that teachers, administrators, and parents are aware of many problems which are complex. They involve more and better trained teachers, a curriculum adapted to the needs of individual children, better equipment and facilities, closer school-community relationships, and an improved program of instruction. Many of the problems are long standing; some are presently acute in some

communities. None can be solved by application of a formula. They must be ap-



proached through a cooperative effort of all persons involved at the local level.

"This bulletin shows how school systems in various States work to solve some of

their problems. From these accounts it is evident that the best results are associated with the use of the democratic process at all levels of activity; with primary children, with older children, with teachers' in-service programs, with parent groups, and with teachers at work with supervisors and administrators. In all instances the problems are of real concern to those involved. Democratic procedures in any group insure the use of the variety of talents and abilities of the members, with each individual feeling that he is a part of the group and that his work and opinion count.

"A thoughtful reading of these accounts from schools can promote discussion in teachers' groups, offer suggestions to teachers for the improvement of instruction, interpret to parents the nature and purpose of the school program, provide ideas for increasing the effectiveness of teacher and parent groups, and be a useful tool in helping to evaluate elementary school practices, for it is through continuous evaluation of practices that progress results."

Civil Defense—A Challenge to Education

By Dana B. Roblee, School Relations Officer, Federal Civil Defense Administration

PRIMITIVE MEN had a wartime civil defense. It was not highly organized but it was as effective as they knew how to make it. If the tribe's warriors were overcome on the battlefield, the simple plan was for noncombatants—the women, children, and aged—to gather up such possessions as they were able to carry and flee into the forest or to some other hiding place. The primitive homes and possessions left behind might be plundered or destroyed, but civilians saved themselves and what they could carry by running away and hiding. They had only a meager knowledge of civil defense, but they practiced what they knew.

Later, men developed more effective community protection. The lords of manors built their homes—their castles—with high turreted walls and surrounded them with moats. When an enemy approached the lands of a manor lord, the nearby civilian population fled to the protection of the

castle. The high wall and moat gave effective advantage to the defensive forces and provided considerable protection to non-combatants within the castle. However, the outside lands and homes were left open to the enemy and, laying siege to the castles and taking them singly, one after another, an aggressor might subdue an entire country.

Mutual Protection

In still later times, men learned that their defenses were strengthened when they banded together in cooperative groups; then they surrounded all the homes of communities within one wall and made the defense of each city more effective through mutual protection. This concept of defensive citizenship, behind walls as barriers to attackers, became so dominant that the famed Great Wall of China was planned to strengthen the defense of a whole country.

Today, the destructive power of modern weapons has made walls (even Maginot

lines) useless for civil defense and new protective techniques have become necessary. Military experts recognize that the fighting potential of an opponent can be substantially lessened by exerting both psychological and physical forces against his supporting civilian population. An aggressor knows that if he can destroy the morale of an opponent's home folk—family members in homes and schools—or can weaken the industrial potential of an opponent's civilian supporters—production workers on farms, in factories, in mines, and in other occupations important to the national economy and the war effort, he can enhance the likelihood of his own military success. He knows that if he can weaken his victim's civilian morale and industrial capacity, he can win a great victory without even committing his military forces to fight for it. An aggressor will not strike unless he believes he can win.

Civilian morale can be disintegrated

both through subtle propaganda and through wanton destruction of property and life. Industrial strength can be destroyed through the powerful weapons of modern warfare—explosive, fire, chemical, and bacteriological.

An enemy knows that a contemplated attack may be frustrated by a citizenry which is able to think clearly despite attempts to create confusion by false rumors and conflicting reports; is ready to rise courageously above any sense of fear, of hopelessness, or of helplessness in the face of devastating blows against life, health, and property; is trained to act with resourcefulness in overcoming the ravages of disease and injuries; and is prepared to combat skillfully the damaging effects of explosive, fire, and chemical onslaughts. He knows that noncombatants with such competencies decrease his chances for success in an attack. In proportion, as an aggressor knows the chances for success in a first strike are lessened, the likelihood of his making an attack is decreased.

Realistically facing the facts thus brought into focus, it is clear that the power of civilians to balk forces aimed at the destruction of American morale and industry will be significant in determining whether war comes and if it does, which side will be victorious. That power is civil defense—the might of civilian America! A strength for peace!

Four Points of Emphasis

The basic techniques in modern civil defense involve principles that have been proved effective in the protection of mental and physical health, life, and property in various emergency situations. However, the havoc that must be reckoned with, if civil defense is to be an effective force for peace, makes necessary four points of emphasis: an intensified sense of social interdependence and group solidarity; a broadened understanding of interpersonal responsibilities; an improved knowledge of the realities of the world we live in; and more commonly developed protective skills. Through these, protective citizenship will become a dynamic functional reality in American culture.

Education is uniquely qualified to be a major factor in building a peace-preserving civil defense program. It can develop insights which will dispel insidious propaganda and the deadly emotional effects of

modern warfare waged against American lives, homes, and industries. It can teach the protective skills and understandings that are characteristic of alert citizenship.

Education has the resources to accomplish these goals. It has the social competence and the organizational structure for effective action; and it occupies a powerful, unique position of leadership in America. Indeed, in this period of undeniable world tensions, education has a challenging responsibility.

Every school and college, every special interest group, and every other educational organization which holds improvement of modern society as a major function shares in the responsibility of preserving world peace. The particular role of each may be unique; but the preservation of peace demands that all gird themselves to prepare the total population to withstand any attack against American civilian morale or industry.

Protective Citizenship

Through many educational organizations—child, youth, and adult—the dynamic concept of protective citizenship as a characteristic of the American culture is being developed. Protective understandings and techniques are being taught as America becomes strengthened to resist threats against her morale or industrial capacity. Major educational organizations, including the American Council on Education, the National Educational Association, the United States Office of Education, and many others recognize the broad educational implication in modern civil defense. Also, many organizations with educational programs outside of the schools and colleges, such as the Boy Scouts of America, the Future Farmers of America, and parent-teacher associations, are developing effective civil defense programs.

All of American education should rise to support vigorously this great peace-preserving program of civilian preparedness for emergency situations. Every educational institution is, in a very real sense, a team player with American statesmen working to restrain the spread of war. Faithful dedication to this purpose requires each school to reappraise its curriculum, its plans, and its community resources in terms of its potential contribution to national security and peace through civil

defense. This reexamination in the light of present tensions and possible outcomes will reveal rich opportunities for integrating into its present program, a broad and realistic understanding of protective citizenship.

Civil defense has become a part of our American culture. Educational leadership is needed! If the total resources of American schools, colleges, and other educational organizations are marshalled to protect the lives and property of all the people, a most effective peace-preserving civil defense program will emerge and the world will know that the strength and spirit of America cannot be destroyed.

Delinquency and the School

(Continued from page 66)

augurated specific programs to train teachers to work with delinquent youth. Representative of these is a cooperative project between a college and the State Youth Authority which involves a period of internship for the students in a juvenile institution. Here the students are able to work with delinquent youth in school, in their work and recreation programs, and in their living quarters. Opportunity is also given students to visit the home and communities of a selected number of cases. The majority of the students completing this program are employed by the public schools and have been exceedingly helpful in working with children with behavior problems. As teachers they also have been able to interpret the program of the Youth Authority to the school faculty and the community and to assist in the adjustment of youth returned to the community from Youth Authority institutions.

Way Can Be Found

No set pattern of procedure can be adopted universally by the school in resolving the many problems it faces in trying to help the children and youth it serves. Many of these problems are local and must be solved locally in terms of a particular community environment. But if the basic principle is followed, that the school is to serve all the children of all the people, and if teachers and administrators are willing to give some study to phenomena of delinquency as it exists in our complex modern society, ways can be found in every community to enable the school to assume the leadership it should command.

Penn State: International Host

By John W. Grissom, Acting Chief, Teacher Education Section,
Division of International Education

IN THE FALL, OF 1951, Pennsylvania State College became the temporary home for fourteen educators from such far-away countries as India, Norway, Thailand, Costa Rica, the Philippines, Haiti, Turkey, Germany and Finland. The fourteen visitors were recipients of grants awarded under the U. S. Government's Teacher Education Program, one of the international exchange programs established by the Smith-Mundt Act of 1948. Pennsylvania State College, cooperating with the U. S. Office of Education, which administers the Program, had accepted the responsibility of advising and instructing these teachers in vocational education for one semester.

After a short period in Washington, D. C., for orientation to the United States and its educational systems, the teachers were sent to State College, Pennsylvania. Under the supervision of Dr. S. Lewis Land, Director of Industrial Education, and his associates, the teachers were enrolled in regular graduate classes at the College according to their individual interests. As there were headmasters and superintendents in the group, as well as classroom teachers, the interests varied considerably. Courses included "Introduction to Education for Vocational Teachers," "Shop Layout and Management," "Philosophy of Vocational Education," "Home Economics," "Food and Nutrition," "Family Health," "Agricultural Developments," "Plant Breeding" and others.

One course, "Seminar in Vocational Education," was established especially for the visiting teachers. This seminar served to coordinate the field activities with the formal courses on the campus. It also provided an opportunity for discussing the problems of individual interests with the group as a whole.

In 1951-52, 201 educators in elementary, secondary and vocational education, and English as a foreign language came from 42 countries to participate in the Teacher Education Program. Seven institutions of higher learning were asked to provide these educators a fundamental understanding of education and society in the U. S. A. This article describes the training and experiences of one particular group but is typical of activities in all groups.

Two days a week were left free for field visits to junior and senior high schools, technical and vocational schools, and for tours through industrial plants and farms. Schools in State College, Pine Grove Mills, Williamsport, Kingston, Hollidaysburg, Reading, Slippery Rock, Harrisburg and in many other Pennsylvania communities were host to these visitors.

Trips were taken to the Philco Manufacturing Company in Watsonstown, the Bethlehem Wire-Rope Plant in Williamsport, the Titan Metal Manufacturing Company in Bellefonte, the Huber Colliery in Ashley, the Hershey Corporation in Hershey, and the Wilkes-Barre Record Publishing Company and the Vulcan Iron Works in Wilkes-Barre. The Centre County Agricultural Agent even arranged a 500-mile tour of farms and farm homes in Centre County for the teachers.

A Living State

To these teachers from other countries, Pennsylvania became a living State of school children, workers, farmers, businessmen and housewives. An area of industries,

farms, schools, churches and homes—in other words, a reality. No longer was Pennsylvania merely a colored portion of a map or descriptive words in a book to these teachers. In this way, they came to know intimately the United States and its people.

The visitors were impressed by the way we teach and practice democracy in our schools. This, they believed, was exemplified by the manner in which teachers and students worked together and by the fact that we were attempting to develop good citizens as well as to meet the academic needs of our children. One teacher expressed his praise by saying, "The liberal and democratic feelings that exist between pupils and teachers and between students and professors, I believe, worthy of emulation."

Most of the teachers came from countries with a strong, centrally controlled system of education, and the influence of our communities on the local school systems was unique to them. Said one teacher from India, "I am very much impressed by the keen interest taken by people in education of the children of the community and the various number of organizations helping and cooperating in educational work."

Freedom For Teachers

Many of the visitors envied the wealth of textbooks, teaching aids and school facilities as well as the freedom allowed each teacher in presenting his courses. One teacher commented, "The vast educational resources of books, magazines, equipment most needed in accomplishing the objectives of any school are within their reach plus the able instructors, technicians and educational philosophers recognized the world over contribute greatly to the academic advancement of whoever would have the privilege of undergoing training in any

of the recognized schools in the United States."

Members of the group also attended several conferences in their fields of specialization. They participated in the Fourth Annual Conference on Industrial Education conducted by the Department of Industrial Education at Penn State and were guests at the Conference on the Rehabilitation of Physically Handicapped Miners in Williamsport. Four teachers interested in agriculture attended the Annual Future Farmers of America Convention in Kansas City, Missouri.

The Cosmopolitan Club, the Rotary Clubs, the American Legion, School Boards, P. T. A.'s and the Kiwanis Clubs in State College and the surrounding area invited the teachers to their meetings and luncheons several times. Often the teachers were asked to speak to these groups about their countries' culture, education, geography and customs. It was in this way that the visiting teachers had an opportunity to follow the "two-way street" of international cultural relations.

An attempt has been made by the Office of Education to analyze the number of talks and speeches given by the group. More than 50 talks and speeches were made by the group to civic clubs, international organizations, school groups, church meetings and professional clubs. Approximately 3,000 persons benefited from these presentations, while newspaper articles about the teachers reached an even greater portion of the American public.

The majority of the teachers resided in the college dormitory and soon learned about collegiate life. Several of the group even adopted the jackets, sporty caps and the mannerisms of their new American college friends.

A Ready Welcome

How well were they accepted at Penn State? Let one of them tell you. "On my arrival at Pennsylvania State College, I was made to feel that my presence was as necessary on the campus as the fireman who watches the gage at a central heating plant or the guard who makes the nightly tour to protect the premises or the freshman student . . . I detected from every student, every professor, and every member of the schools visited, the cooperation to make my study and stay a success. As I trod the campus and visited in the community of

State College, Pennsylvania, everyone whom I encountered approached with an outstretched hand. This is the pattern by which I was received in every community and school throughout my stay in America."

The faculty members of Penn State and the townspeople in the area entertained the visitors in their homes many times, and the teachers will never forget this warm hospitality. In the short period of 3 months at Penn State, which constituted the first half of their program in the United States, these teachers from all areas of the world learned how we live as well as how we educate our children from youth to maturity. They had opportunities to see our religious, social and political activities in natural settings. Their appreciation and understanding of America and her people were greatly strengthened. Although all comments were not favorable ones, there was a sincere exchange of respect and friendship between the teachers and their many American hosts.

What impressions did these teachers gather from their visit to Penn State and to other sections of the United States? Perhaps a few comments taken from the reports submitted by them to the Office of Education at the end of their grants may help to answer this.

What They Liked

When asked what they liked about the United States, some wrote, "The American people's kindness, readiness to help and their lack of snobbery." "That you can go to and talk with everybody. All people are kindly and willing to serve you. For example, I went to the Director for an

Archaeological Division of a Museum and told him that I am interested in old string instruments and he spent a couple of hours with me and showed me all the instruments which they had, both in exhibition and storage. When I left him, I had the feeling that he was very satisfied and happy when he had the opportunity to serve me. I have never, under the period of 5 months I have been in this country, seen any person who has been 'sour' or unfriendly to me." "The way in which the church works in this country. For example: How the 13 different churches take care of and serve the students on this campus [Penn State] and how the churches in for example, Washington, are filled with people on Sundays." "Remarkable for a non-American appears the average high standard of living in the U. S. A. which is reflected in the innumerable mechanical aids." "The fact that open criticism in either form of speech or print is free."

Several aspects of our country brought forth unfavorable comments. Some teachers criticized the lack of frugality in our way of living, such as the waste of paper and food. For example, a number of the teachers live in countries where the teacher possesses the only textbook in classes of 60 to 80 pupils. Very few of the teachers were able to satisfy completely their desire to obtain textbooks and pamphlets before going home.

To several of the group, the average American's food supply must have seemed tremendous and what is wasted, criminal. One teacher came from a country where less than a decade ago almost 4,000,000



The group of foreign teachers of vocational education at Penn State College. Dr. S. Lewis Land, Director of Industrial Education, is with the group (back row center). His assistant, Mr. Peterson, is at extreme left.

of his countrymen starved to death during a famine.

When you think of how many times a day we use paper in one form or another, or how much food is consumed and discarded daily, it is not difficult to understand their criticism.

A Paradoxical Impression

All commented on how little the average American knew about other nations of the world. As we are now assuming a position of world leadership in the eyes of these visitors, this weakness seemed extremely odd to them. Perhaps this created a paradoxical impression as well, for several of the teachers were surprised that people, knowing so little about them, would take them into their schools, homes and churches.

The racial problem was mentioned with varied feelings, but there was a consensus that, although it was not a good example of democracy, there was evidence that we are honestly attempting to solve it.

Our use of the radio, television and magazines to provide the public entertainment in the form of murder mysteries, crime and risqué stories was criticized, particularly from the standpoint of their effect on children.

The few unfavorable impressions did not appear to lessen the teachers' respect and friendship for this country. Most of them realized their lifelong ambition in coming to the United States. An excerpt from one of the reports may be a good example of what the training at Pennsylvania State College and the hospitality of the American people meant to the majority of these teachers from other lands.

"I still remember when I told my mother of my ambition of coming to this country. I was a sophomore in the high school. I thought she would laugh as others used to do when I told them about it. She did not. Instead, she made me understand and gave me more hope and encouragement. 'I will be very proud of you and be very happy if someday you can go to the United States to study. If only I could afford it, I would more than be willing to send you. The only chance and hope is in your hands. Study hard and I will see to it, by all means, that you go to college. When you finish, you can get a job. Then if you can save and after several years you can go. Never lose hope and do not forget to ask help from God. He will help you if you deserve it.'

Since then, my ambition has been a part of my daily prayers . . ."

Two Homes

This young man may not have found the dreamland that he expected to find, but when he was ready to depart for home, he told me that now he had two homes. His only regret was that he could live in but one of them. Nevertheless, when he returned to his country, he would make every effort to reduce the distance between the two, mentally and spiritually, for the benefit of his people and mine.

News from UNESCO

(Continued from page 71)

tural aspect of language teaching. A most interesting feature of the sessions was provided by the intervention of representatives of the French, British, Dutch, Austrian, Swiss and Luxemburgois language teachers, who gave their version of the problem in their own countries.

It was very clear from the discussions which followed, as well as from the papers read by well known authorities such as Professor Louis Landré of the University of Paris and Mr. Vernon Mallinson of Reading University, that most of the Western European countries are making a great effort in their secondary schools and colleges to give language pupils an up-to-date and accurate picture of the countries and peoples whose languages they study. European countries do, of course, enjoy certain geographical advantages in this respect. It is comparatively easy, for instance, to arrange for mass exchanges of pupils during the holiday months and for frequent visits abroad of the language teachers themselves. There are, on the other hand, distinct handicaps too. Countries like Belgium, Switzerland and Luxemburg are themselves bilingual or even, as in the case of Switzerland trilingual, so that foreign languages and foreign cultures are not merely second languages but often third or even fourth languages. Teachers in these countries have professional obstacles to overcome as well. In Luxemburg, for example, the modern language teacher must also be a specialist in one of the two classical languages. In Holland there is the burden of teaching hours; for a thirty-hour weekly teaching schedule is considered normal!

Save The Children

YOU CAN HELP many types of needy children in the United States and in many other countries through your support of the Save The Children Federation, 80 Eighth Avenue, New York 11, N. Y.

Through voluntary gifts this Federation helps to provide minimum essentials of school supplies, shoes, and warm clothing for many children attending ill-equipped schools in rural areas. The Federation provides shoes, clothing, and medical supplies for young American Indian children in need. For war-orphaned, crippled, and poverty-stricken children in Europe and the Middle East it helps fill lacks of adequate clothing and food. The Federation provides schoolroom essentials for children in many parts of Europe whose schools were bombed during World War II. Packages of baby things new mothers in need both in our countries and abroad can use to help themselves and their offspring during the baby's first year are furnished by the Federation. It sends to war-stricken Korean children clothing, school supplies, and other vitally needed materials.

For further information write to the Save The Children Federation, which is a member of the International Union for Child Welfare and the American Council of Voluntary Agencies for Foreign Service, Inc. Programs and financial statements of the Federation are filed under Registration No. VFA 031 with the Advisory Committee on Voluntary Foreign Aid of the Department of State.

Their Own Report

"We have learned much about the American way of life and gained precious knowledge about each other's countries."

This statement, appearing in the preface of a unique report, expresses the feelings of the teachers of English from many countries who attended the English Language Institute at the University of Michigan in 1952.

With an editor from Egypt, a co-editor from Panama, a photographer from Peru, and contributors from other nations, the visiting teachers planned, prepared, and published a report of their 8 weeks' course and related experiences while attending the University of Michigan.

SCHOOL LIFE, February 1953

The Office of Education Its Organization and Functions

Many school administrators and teachers across the country address requests to the Office of Education asking for information on the organization and functions of the Office.

For these and other educators interested, *SCHOOL LIFE* will present in a series several recently-prepared statements of function for the divisions and branches of the Office of Education. In some instances charts will also be used.

The first statement in the series covers the functions of the Office of the Commissioner of Education and the respective divisions of the Office. There is a further break-down of the specific functions of the branches in the Office of the Commissioner of Education.

COMMISSIONER OF EDUCATION

Under general supervision of the Federal Security Administrator, administers the program of the Office of Education. Maintains relationships in international educational matters. With staff assistance, develops and formulates Office objectives and programs, coordinates operations and activities, maintains relationships with Federal, State, and professional agencies and organizations; and provides administrative services.

OFFICE OF THE COMMISSIONER

Program Development and Coordination Branch

Studies and identifies emerging problems and trends in American education. Plans and recommends Office programs and objectives. Reviews projects and activities for effectiveness and conformity to over-all goals and policies. Assists in program implementation. Collects and analyzes basic statistical data in the several fields of education; issues statistical reports; supplies statistical information to the Office staff and the public; acts in liaison capacity with other statistical agencies of the government. Provides consultative and technical services to other divisions.

Reports and Technical Services Branch

Plans and directs program to diffuse research findings of the Office; announces and interprets research publications and content. Plans and operates Office-wide publications program including periodicals; provides editorial services for technical reports. Assists in research for official papers of the Commissioner. Re-

views all manuscripts prepared in the Office for conformity to policy. Controls, reviews, and appraises funds for printing and binding; serves as liaison with Government Printing Office and Superintendent of Documents. Answers public inquiries and distributes publications.

Administrative Management Branch

Advises and assists the Commissioner on administrative and organizational matters; participates in program and policy planning; represents the Office in budgetary, personnel, and other management activities with the Agency, Congress, and other units of the Government; is responsible for planning and developing budget estimates and participating in their justification before Congress and the Bureau of the Budget; directs administrative management activities for the Office.

Budget and Administrative Services Section

Formulates budget policies and procedures to be followed in developing and preparing budget estimates and justifications and provides technical advice and assistance to Office staff in budget and fiscal matters; administers the budget of the Office; provides budget and fiscal services, mail, records, and messenger services, space planning, and other administrative services.

Personnel and Organization Section

Studies and reviews organization and procedures; provides advice and assistance in improving organization and procedures. Plans and provides recruitment, employment, classification and other personnel services. Provides advice and assistance in establishing and maintaining effective personnel relations and programs. Provides service to Board of U. S. Civil Service Examiners and Board on Employee Awards.

DIVISIONS

Division of State and Local School Systems

Provides educational leadership in the general field of elementary and secondary education. Maintains relationships with and furnishes advisory services to State and local school systems and educational organizations in the field of elementary and secondary education, including organization and administration of State and local school systems, organization and administration of schools, supervision, curriculum and instruction, and auxiliary services.

Division of Higher Education

Provides educational leadership in the general field of higher education. Maintains relationships with and furnishes advisory services to institutions of higher education on such matters as administration and supervision, and curriculum and instruction. Administers funds appropriated for land-grant colleges.

Division of Vocational Education

Provides leadership in the general field of vocational education. Maintains relationships with and furnishes advisory services to State Boards for Vocational Education, other Federal agencies, and professional organizations on such matters as vocational guidance and vocational education in agriculture, distributive occupations, home economics, and trade and industry. Administers grants-in-aid for vocational education under the George-Barden and Smith-Hughes Acts.

Division of International Education

Conducts research and publishes reports on foreign educational systems; assists American institutions in the evaluation of foreign educational credentials; promotes development of international understanding through educational channels. Provides staffing services to Point IV educational activities; recruits specialists and teachers for overseas educational missions. Plans programs for foreign teachers and trainees; arranges for matching and placement of American and foreign teachers on interchange assignments. Plans field programs for foreign leaders, specialists and U. N. fellows. Provides advisory services to public and private agencies and organizations in the field of international education.

Division of Veterans Educational Services

Provides educational advisory services to the Veterans Administration, State Approving Agencies, and educational institutions and organizations in the veterans' education program. Reviews and evaluates agreements with, and operations of, State Approving Agencies. Promulgates and maintains lists of nationally approved accrediting agencies and associations. Promulgates criteria for the approval of nonaccredited courses by State Approving Agencies. Maintains relationships with organizations and agencies in connection with the education of veterans. Develops and coordinates defense educational activities in the Office of Education.

**Division of School Assistance in
Federally Affected Areas**

Administers programs of financial assistance to local educational agencies for maintenance and operation of schools

in Federally affected areas under P. L. 874, 81st Congress, and for construction of school facilities under Title II, P. L. 815, 81st Congress, in such areas. Processes applications from schools, col-

leges, and libraries for construction authority; allots controlled materials for construction projects and issues authorizations for necessary equipment and supplies; estimates educational needs for controlled materials.

New Books and Pamphlets

By Susan O. Futterer, Associate Librarian, Federal Security Agency Library

Adolescence and Youth; The Process of Maturing. By Paul H. Landis. Second Edition. New York, McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1952. 461 p. \$5.00.

The Administration of Public Education. By John T. Wahlquist, William E. Arnold, Roald F. Campbell, Theodore L. Reller and Lester B. Sands. New York, The Ronald Press Co., 1952. 611 p. \$6.00.

Desirable Athletic Competition for Children. (Report of the Joint Committee on Athletic Competition for Children of Elementary and Junior High Schools, Simon A. McNeely, Chairman.) Washington, D. C., American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation, A Department of the National Education Association, 1952. 46 p. Illus. 50 cents.

Educational Television Moves Forward. A Report of a Full School Day of Ultra-High Frequency. Classroom Television Programs in the Public Schools of Bloomfield and Montclair, N. J., on April 30, 1952. Prepared by Lawrence H. Conrad. Montclair, N. J., The Montclair State Teachers College, Television in Education Project, 1952. 39 p. Illus. \$1.00.

In-Service Education of Teachers in Connecticut. Hartford, Connecticut State Department of Education, Bureau of Research and Planning, 1952. 63 p. (Bulletin 56.)

Intergroup Education in Public Schools. Experimental Programs Sponsored by the Project in Intergroup Education in Co-operating Schools: Theory, Practice, and In-Service Education. By Hilda Taba,

Elizabeth Hall Brady, and John T. Robinson. Washington, D. C., American Council on Education, 1952. 337 p. \$4.00.

The Mentally Retarded Child. A Guide for Parents. By Abraham Levinson. Prepared under the Auspices of the Dr. Julian D. Levinson Research Foundation. New York, The John Day Co., 1952. 190 p. \$2.75.

Organization Guide for Citizenship Education. Relating Premises and Current Unresolved Issues and Laboratory Practices to Junior-Senior High School: Social Studies, Science, English and Communication. New York, Citizenship Education Project, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1951. 44 p. (Publication Number 23.)

Selected Theses on Education

By Susan O. Futterer, Associate Librarian, Federal Security Agency Library

THESE theses are on file in the Federal Security Agency Library, where they are available for interlibrary loan.

A Comparison of Methods of Teaching Vocabulary in Academic Areas at the College Level. By Clifford L. Bush. Doctor's, 1950. Syracuse University. 303 p. ms.

A Descriptive and Evaluative Bibliography of Mathematics Filmstrips. By Alton W. Clark, Clayton H. Gardner, Raymond W. Allen, and Robert F. Sweeney. Master's, 1951. Boston University. 492 p. ms.

An Evaluation of the Effect of Illustrations Upon Comprehension in Reading on First and Second Grade Children. By Theresa V. Kuivila. Master's, 1951. Boston University. 56 p. ms.

An Experimental Study of Some of the Relationships Between Specific Speech Characteristics and Aspects of Personality

as Measured by the Minnesota Personality Scale. By Charles Otto Drews. Master's, 1950. Syracuse University. 53 p. ms.

Family Life Education in School and Community. By Elizabeth McHose. Doctor's, 1951. Teachers College, Columbia University, 1952. 182 p. (Teachers College Studies in Education.)

A Further Study of Certain Factors Associated With Reading Comprehension. By Lyman C. Hunt, Jr. Doctor's, 1952. Syracuse University. 260 p. ms.

Higher Education for the American Indians in the American Colonies. By Marie H. Smith. Master's, 1950. New York University. 83 p. ms.

Psychologists' Judgments of Personality Characteristics in Children's Drawings. By Helen A. Brown. Master's, 1951. Syracuse University. 77 p. ms.

Some Factors Related to Effective Classroom Behavior of First-Year Teachers. By Lester Seth Vander Werf. Doctor's, 1950. Syracuse University. 84 p. ms.

The Study of English Grammar as Presented in Selected Freshman College Textbooks. By Cornelius Van Jordan. Master's, 1950. University of Cincinnati. 68 p. ms.

A Study of the Evaluation of Teacher-Administrator Relationships in Elementary and Secondary Schools. By George R. Sherrie. Doctor's, 1950. Syracuse University. 247 p. ms.

A Study of the Causes of Change in Attitude Toward Social Studies Between the Fifth and Seventh Grades Among 87 Children. By Constance S. Harrier and George F. Laubner. Master's, 1951. Boston University. 76 p. ms.